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INTERNATIONAL WEEKLY JOURNAL OF SCIENCE

Vol 308 No 5957 22-28 March 1984 £1.80 \$4.50



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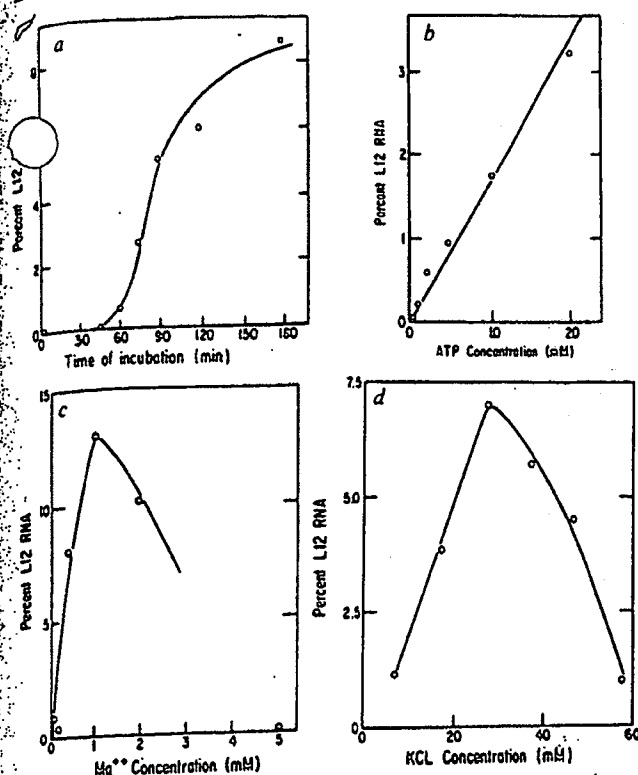


Fig. 2 Time course and cofactor requirements for splicing *in vitro* of an exogenous RNA precursor. *a*, Purified precursor RNA was incubated for various times in the whole cell extract in splicing conditions. The RNA products of the reaction were then analysed by hybridization to M13 pJAW 43 DNA followed by digestion with pancreatic RNase, as described in Fig. 1. The fraction of spliced RNA was determined by densitometric tracing of the autoradiogram. The ATP dependence, *b*, the Mg²⁺ dependence, *c*, and the KCl dependence, *d*, were determined in analogous experiments. RNA precursor synthesized as described in Fig. 1 was purified by Sephadex G-50-150 chromatography to remove the nucleoside triphosphates. The splicing reactions were performed as described in Fig. 1, except for the following modifications. For the experiment shown in *a*, each reaction contained a concentration of Mg²⁺ equal to the ATP concentration plus 0.5 mM. For the experiment of *c*, ATP was present at a concentration of 1 mM. For the experiment of *d*, ATP and Mg²⁺ were present at a concentration of 1 mM and 1.5 mM, respectively.

of incubation. This level of spliced product remained stable for an additional 12-h incubation. The unusually long lag cannot reflect a slow ATP-independent step involving assembly of complexes which then rapidly utilize ATP to cleave and ligate RNA, because preincubation of labelled RNA and extract in the absence of ATP does not shorten the lag period between the addition of ATP and the appearance of spliced product. This suggests that the rate-limiting step, perhaps formation of a complex with substrate RNA, is ATP dependent.

Cofactor requirements for the splicing of mRNA precursors in an extract of HeLa cells are not similar to those of rRNA splicing which does not require ATP^{3,4} but are similar to those for the splicing of tRNA precursors; both reactions require ATP and Mg²⁺ (refs 8, 9). The two reactions differ in their Mg²⁺ dependence, however; 10 mM Mg²⁺ is optimal for tRNA splicing² while mRNA precursor splicing is inhibited at concentrations of Mg²⁺ above 5 mM. In addition, whereas other nucleoside triphosphates such as UTP, CTP and GTP are able to substitute for the ATP requirement in the tRNA splicing reaction², these nucleoside triphosphates are not able to substitute for the ATP requirement in the mRNA splicing reaction (Fig. 1c). These differences may reflect the use of different enzymatic activities by the two types of RNA precursors.

The splicing of tRNA precursors occurs by two distinct and separable steps: endonucleolytic cleavage followed by ligation

of the exons^{8,9}. Whereas the only cofactor required for the cleavage reaction is Mg²⁺, both Mg²⁺ and ATP are necessary for the ligation reaction. It is unlikely that a similar division of the mRNA splicing reaction is possible. At present, we have not found that a significant fraction of the exogenously added mRNA precursor is cleaved when incubated in a reaction containing Mg²⁺ but no ATP (S.F.H. and P.J.G., unpublished observations). Also, preincubation of RNA and extract in the absence of ATP does not result in the formation of complexes that quickly process RNA upon addition of the cofactor.

We have previously shown that addition of antisera that react with the U1 small nuclear ribonucleoprotein particles (U1 RNP) inhibited splicing in the coupled transcription/splicing system¹⁰. Similar experiments using exogenous substrate RNA also show inhibition of splicing by addition of the same anti-U1 RNP sera. The pronounced lag before appearance of spliced product might reflect the slow assembly of an RNP-substrate complex in the reaction mix. Formation of an RNA/RNA duplex by sequences at the 5' end of U1 RNA and the 5' splice site has been suggested as an important step in recognition of the mRNA precursor^{11,12}. However, there is no inherent reason why this type of recognition should be slow given that the U1 RNA concentration in the reaction is 5 µg ml⁻¹.

P.J.G. acknowledges support from the Helen Hay Whitney Foundation and R.A.P. from the Myron A. Bantrell Charitable Trust. This work was supported by NSF grant PCM-7823230 (currently PCM-8200309), NIH grant P01-CA26717 to P.A.S. and partially from Center for Cancer Biology at MIT (Core) grant NIH-P01-CA14051.

Received 21 October 1983; accepted 6 January 1984.

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Similarity of the nucleotide sequences of rat α -lactalbumin and chicken lysozyme genes

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α -Lactalbumin (α -LA) is a milk protein that interacts with the enzyme galactosyltransferase, modifying its substrate specificity in a way which promotes the transfer of galactose to glucose, resulting in a β -1 \rightarrow 4 glycosidic linkage and the synthesis of lactose^{1,2}. Lysozyme, an enzyme which catalyses the hydrolysis of a β -1 \rightarrow 4 glycosidic linkage in polysaccharides, has been shown to be structurally related to α -LA and it has been proposed that they have arisen from a common ancestral gene³. To compare their evolutionary relationships, we report here the complete nucleotide sequence of the rat α -LA gene, including its 5'-flanking sequences, and compare its gene structure with the chicken egg-white lysozyme gene⁴. Both genes contain three introns at similar positions. The first three exons of the two genes have similar nucleotide sequences. The fourth exon of α -LA, which partly codes for the C-terminal residues of the protein, essential for its interaction with galactosyltransferase^{5,6}, is markedly different from the corresponding exon of the lysozyme gene and is preceded by two (TG)_n repeats.

Fig. 1 (left) Sequence of the sense strand of the rat α -LA gene region. The coding sequences of the exons have been translated and the amino acid residues numbered below. The start of RNA transcription was identified at position 1,247 (∇) by primer extension¹⁰ and at position 1,245 (∇) by S_1 nuclease mapping¹¹. The termination site of the RNA transcript at position 3,762 is shown by \uparrow . The consensus sequence, TAAATAAAA, and the polyadenylation site are boxed. The short repeat sequences in the 5'-flanking region and unique sequences of the intervening region are underlined.

Methods: A 32 P-labelled rat α -LA cDNA clone pa-LA 18⁷ was used as a hybridization probe to screen 5×10^6 plaques from the bacteriophage Charon 4A/rat partial *Eco*RI genomic library⁸. Seven individual hybridizing plaques were isolated, plaque purified, and DNA from each recombinant phage was isolated and mapped with different restriction endonucleases. Rat α -LA cDNA has a single *Eco*RI site⁷. The 3' and 5' end fragments to this site were used as hybridization probes. Comparison of the hybridization patterns of the phage DNAs and the restriction enzyme maps showed that there were two classes of recombinant phages. One class contains 6 and 2.7 kb *Eco*RI liver DNA fragments. Only the 6 kb fragment hybridized to the 3' end probe of pa-LA cDNA. The other class contains *Eco*RI fragments of approximately 0.9, 2.5, 1.0, 5.5, 1.1 and 0.5 kb. Only 0.9 and 2.5 kb fragments hybridized to the 5'-end probe of the essentially full-length α -LA cDNA clone, pa-LA 35 (short of 4 nucleotides on the 5' end) or to α -LA mRNA labelled at the 5' end. A recombinant phage carrying overlapping α -LA genomic DNA fragment of the two phage classes could not be identified from this partial *Eco*RI genomic library even after additional screening of 2×10^6 phages. The restriction DNA fragment of the α -LA gene region from rat mammary gland or liver DNA could be arranged into a genomic map indistinguishable from the restriction enzyme map derived from the two recombinant phages. We have recently isolated a recombinant phage carrying an overlapping α -LA rat genomic DNA from a bacteriophage Charon 4A/rat partial *Hae*III genomic library. Rat *Eco*RI DNA fragments from each phage DNA were isolated on 1% low melting agarose gel and subcloned into the *Eco*RI site of pBR322. Plasmid DNA and their *Eco*RI inserts were isolated and purified from such subclones. The linkage of the *Eco*RI fragments of the recombinant phage DNAs was determined by partial digestion of the DNA with *Eco*RI or extensive digestion with a combination of restriction enzymes, followed by Southern blotting²⁹ and hybridization with the 32 P-labelled *Eco*RI inserts of the subclones. The inserts of some of the subclones, pBa-LA 2.5 and pBa-LA 0.9, containing 2.5 and 0.9 kb *Eco*RI liver DNA fragments, respectively, were extensively mapped with restriction endonucleases and sequenced by the Maxam and Gilbert method³⁰. The nucleotide sequence from positions 1-2,574 and 2,575-3,522 was determined from pBa-LA 2.5 and pBa-LA 0.9, respectively. The remaining sequence from position 3,523-3,829 was determined from the *Eco*RI/*Bam*HI fragment isolated from the 6 kb genomic rat DNA fragment.

The nucleotide sequence of the entire rat α -LA gene and its flanking region is shown in Fig. 1. The α -LA gene extends over 2.5 (kb kilobases) of genomic DNA and is composed of four exons and three introns. The nucleotide sequence of the coding region of the genomic DNA is consistent with the previously reported cDNA sequences of pa-LA 18 and pa-LA 17⁷ and with the essentially full-length α -LA cDNA clone pa-LA 35 (Fig. 1 legend). The amino acid sequence of the entire rat α -LA protein has been deduced from the DNA sequence of the gene. This has confirmed our previously published partial sequence of rat α -LA⁷ which showed that rat α -LA has a 17 residue extension at the carboxy terminus which is proline rich and hydrophobic. The nucleotide sequence of the gene shows

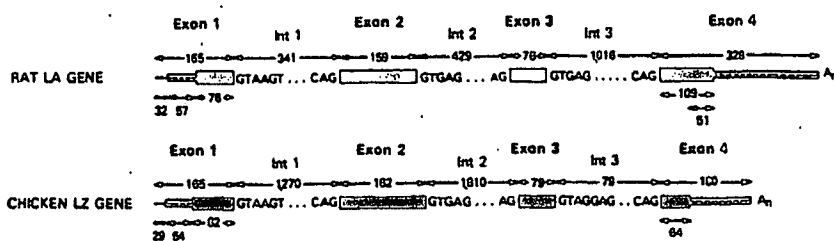
that this extension results from a T to G base change in the termination codon. Comparison of the nucleotide deduced amino acid sequence with the amino acid sequence of rat α -LA reported by Prasad *et al.*⁹ shows certain differences. We believe that some of these discrepancies are probably a result of an incorrect amino acid assignment made because of deamination of some amino acids during the protein sequence analysis. We cannot explain the remaining discrepancies.

The 5' end of the rat α -LA mRNA was located at G, position 1,247, by the primer extension method¹⁰. However, it was identified as T at position 1,245 (Fig. 1) by S_1 nuclease mapping¹¹. Preceding this initiation site is an A-rich sequence, 5'-TAAATAAA-3', at position 1,224-1,231. This is similar but not identical to the consensus sequence TATAAA¹² found at the initiation site of many other genes. There are also a number of almost identical short repeat sequences preceding this A-rich sequence, shown underlined in Fig. 1. These appear only in the 5' flanking region of this gene. It remains to be established whether these short repeat sequences are in any way related to the induction or inhibition of the α -LA gene expression by multiple hormonal combinations¹³. It is worth noting that a nonanucleotide sequence ATCCCTTC, which appears at positions 748-756 and 860-868, resembles the first 9 nucleotides of the 19-nucleotide consensus sequence ATCCCTTATTCTGTGTA thought to be involved in the progesterone receptor recognition site in the ovalbumin gene¹⁴. The three intervening sequences of the α -LA gene have some unusual features (Fig. 1). In the first intervening sequence a trinucleotide, TCC, is repeated 23 times between positions 1,459 and 1,528. In the third intervening sequence TG dinucleotide is repeated 25 times from position 2,897 to 2,946 and again 22 times from position 3,263 to 3,306. Between these two stretches of TG repeat sequences a trinucleotide, TAT, is repeated from position 2,964 to 3,114. The TG repeats have been shown to occur in other eukaryotic genomes^{15,16}.

Comparison of rat α -LA and chicken egg white lysozyme gene organization⁴ reveals that the three introns are located at similar positions within the coding regions of the two genes (Fig. 2). Rat α -LA exons are 165 (167), 159, 76 and 328 base pairs (bp) long, compared with the corresponding lysozyme exons which are 165, 162, 79 and 180 bp long. The three introns are located on codons 26, 79 and 104 within the coding regions of rat α -LA, compared with codons 28, 82 and 108 of chicken egg white lysozyme. The first and third introns in both the genes interrupt the Trp codon. However the corresponding intervening sequences in the two genes differ in length: in the rat α -LA gene the intervening sequences are 341, 429 and 1,016 bp long and in the chicken egg white lysozyme gene 1,270, 1,810 and 79 bp long. All three introns in both the genes not only begin with GT and end with an AG dinucleotide, sequences thought to be necessary for correct RNA splicing of various other eukaryotic genes¹⁷, but also have additional common sequences at the exon-intron junctions (Fig. 2).

Comparison of the nucleotide sequences of the coding regions of the first three exons of rat α -LA with chicken egg white lysozyme show sequence similarities of 43%, 56% and 46% in exons 1, 2 and 3, respectively. For this comparison, the amino acid sequences of the two proteins in these regions were first aligned and subsequently their nucleotide sequences. This required one additional residue (in the signal peptide) and two

Fig. 2 Comparisons of the rat α -LA and the chicken egg white lysozyme gene regions. Solid boxes represent the regions coding for the structural sequences of the protein; open boxes with a dashed line at the 5'- and at 3'-ends represent, respectively, the region coding the signal peptide of the protein and the 3' noncoding region. In exon 1 the dashed line represents the 5' noncoding region. Numbers represent the bp and Int the intervening sequences.



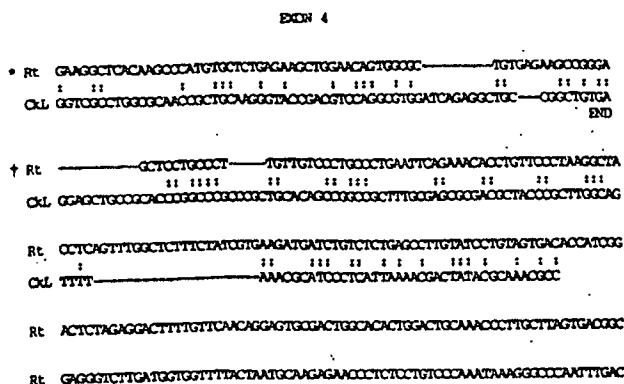


Fig. 3 The nucleotide sequence alignment of the fourth exon of rat α -LA and chicken egg white lysozyme. * Indicates that the alignment of this coding region was based on the amino acid alignment. † Indicates that from this position onwards the sequences were aligned using the NUCALN computer program²³ with the following parameters: k-tuple size, 2; window size, 20; gap penalty, 5.

deletions in the amino acid sequence coded by the first exon, and one deletion each in the second and third exons of α -LA. Using the SEQDP computer program¹⁸ these regions showed statistically significant similarities at the protein level as previously observed with other α -LAs¹. Exon 2 of α -LA (which has the highest nucleotide and amino acid similarities with exon 2 of lysozyme— codes for amino acid residues considered to be involved in the interaction with galactosyltransferase and partial binding of monosaccharides in the lactose synthase complex^{5,6}. Exon 2 of lysozyme codes for residues which carry the catalytic centre and contribute mainly to polysaccharide binding^{19,20}.

The similarities both at the protein and nucleic acid level, together with the functional similarities of the exons, strengthen the argument that α -LA and lysozyme have evolved from the same primordial gene. However, based on model building, the conformation of the main chain of α -LA, though for the most part similar to lysozyme, differs from it from residue 108 onwards²¹. These residues are encoded by the fourth exon of the two genes which show the least similarity and also differ in length; 328 bp for α -LA and 180 bp for chicken lysozyme (Figs 2, 3). The first 64 nucleotides of the lysozyme exon and 58 nucleotides of the α -LA exon code for residues 109–129 and 105–123, respectively, in the two proteins. The 17 residue extension at the carboxy terminus which is unique to the rat α -LA is a result of a single point mutation in the termination codon and has been excluded from this discussion. In this region 5 out of 19 residues of α -LA align with lysozyme only when three deletions and one additional residue are introduced²¹ in α -LA. Using the SEQDP¹⁸ and ALIGN²² programs, the amino acid similarity in this region was not found to be statistically significant. Based on the amino acid alignment we compared the nucleic acid sequence of this region of α -LA and lysozyme (Fig. 3). Using the ALIGN program²², the two sequences do not show any statistically significant similarities. When the 3' non-coding regions were aligned using the NUCALN computer program²³, again the nucleotide similarities were not significant (Fig. 3). This, although there is a high degree of similarity implying homology between the other exons, the two genes have diverged in the region of the fourth exon, since this region of the α -LA gene shows no statistically significant similarity with the corresponding lysozyme exon. On the other hand, there is extensive nucleotide similarity between the fourth exon of the rat α -LA gene and the comparable region of human and guinea pig α -LA mRNA.²⁴ The region coding for residues 105 onwards, which contains amino acids essential for its interaction with galactosyltransferase^{3,6}, is well conserved among species variants of α -LA. This functionally important region of α -LA is conformationally different from the corresponding region of lysozyme²¹, and is coded by a separate nucleotide region preceded by two (TG)_n repeats.

The observed differences in the fourth exon of the two genes suggest that this exon of the primordial gene diverged more rapidly than the other exon through accumulation of point mutations, insertions and deletions, generating a DNA sequence which partly coded for a new functional unit of a protein. Alternatively, according to the split gene hypothesis^{23,26}, the entire fourth exon might have been replaced by a new region of DNA. TG dinucleotide repeats, present in the intervening sequence preceding the fourth exon of the α -LA gene, have the potential of forming a Z-DNA structure²⁷. These sequences have been implicated in genetic recombination, rearrangement and regulation of gene expression^{15,28} and may have had some role in generating the observed differences in the fourth exons of the two genes. Thus, α -LA and lysozyme are two related proteins with different functions whose critical divergence appears to be concentrated in one exon and may therefore serve as a useful model for the study of the evolution of new proteins.

We thank Drs David Lipman and Jacob Maizel for carrying out the computer analyses and for their valuable suggestions on the manuscript.

Received 14 September 1983; accepted 5 January 1984.

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Fibronectin receptors on *Trypanosoma cruzi* trypomastigotes and their biological function

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Successful invasion of mammalian cells by pathogenic parasites is generally considered, from circumstantial evidence, to be a consequence of specific mechanisms of recognition of cell surface components¹⁻³—this has stimulated investigations of the biochemical characterization of such molecules³⁻⁶. Several studies of trypanosomiasis have examined the ability of parasites to interact with mammalian cells^{7,8}. However, knowledge of